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COLLEGE GIRLS UTILIZE THEIR HOME-ECONOMICS TRAINING IN PREPARING A CHRISTMAS SURPRISE FOR A NEEDY FAMILY

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SCHOOL LIFE is intended to be useful to all persons whose interest is in education. It is not devoted to any specialty. Its ambition is to present well-considered articles in every field of education which will be not only indispensable to those who work in that field but helpful to all others as well. Articles of high character on secondary education have been printed under the auspices of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, of which Dr. J. B. Edmonson is chairman and Carl A. Jessen is secretary; these articles will continue through this volume at least. Miss Emeline S. Whitcomb, specialist in home economics of the Bureau of Education, has been instrumental in procuring many excellent papers by leading specialists in her subject. Through the courteous cooperation of Mrs. Laura Underhill Kohn and Mrs. S. M. N. Marrs, the achievements of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers are to be set forth in an important series which began in a previous number and are represented in this issue by the contribution of Mrs. Reeve. Similarly, the activity of Miss Edith A. Lathrop, assistant specialist in rural education, and Mr. Carl H. Milam, secretary of the American Library Association, has produced a significant series of papers upon county libraries. Some of them have already been published, as the editorial on page 70 describes. Others are expected from: Sarah B. Askew, librarian, New Jersey Public Library Commission; Bertine Weston, Public Library of Fort Wayne and Allen County, Ind.; Lillian W. Barkdoll, school and reference librarian, Washington County Free Library, Hagerstown, Md.; Margaret E. Wright, in charge of county department, Cleveland Public Library; Charlotte Templeton, librarian, Greenville Public Library, Greenville, S. C. These papers and others upon this subject will be in future numbers. The papers in these four unified series will not overshadow others of equal value. Consular reports on education in other countries constantly come to us through the State Department; frequent articles are printed on child health and school hygiene; higher education is represented in reasonable measure. In short, SCHOOL LIFE means to cover the whole field of education as well as its limited extent will permit.

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No. 4

Efforts in Behalf of Preschool Children Directed Largely To Parents

Founder of National Congress of Parents and Teachers Sought to Arouse Parents to Importance of Right Training for Young Children. Present Movement a Reversion to Fundamental Undertakings. Parent-Teacher Organization no Longer a Mere Auxiliary to the Schools but a Great School for Adult Education. Excellent Results from "Summer Round-Up" for Removing Remediable Defects before Beginning School

By MARGARETTA WILLIS REEVE

Fourth Vice President, National Congress of Parents and Teachers

IN SCHOOL LIFE for November the general outline of parental education as it falls within the program of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers has been given. This month we go back to the beginning and consider that program in detail as it relates to the preschool child.

Although the wide extension of the parent-teacher movement throughout the school system has tended to center the attention of a majority of its members around the child of school age, the problems met in the surveys made by well-organized associations have forced thinking parents to turn to the preschool years for their solution and to consider what may be done in them to prevent the occurrence of the difficulties which now confront them through the grade and high school years, when the qualities developed in the home must meet the searching test of public opinion as represented by the school-room and the playground.

First Emphasis Upon Preschool Education

As the purpose of the founder of the National Congress, Mrs. Theodore Birney, was to arouse parents to a consciousness of the importance of the right training of the little human plant, her first emphasis was laid upon preschool education in the home and the fitting of fathers and mothers to meet their responsibilities; but her clear vision saw that the day would come when the teachers must share as partners in the cultivation of the whole child.

Preschool education, then, begins with the parents. Dr. Douglas A. Thom has wisely said: "The child is a symptom of

his environment," and never was definition more profoundly true. All too often they are symptoms of unfavorable conditions. Under the name of parental education the country to-day is being flooded with good advice as to the bringing up of children, mentally, morally, and physically. Men and women flock by thousands to hear wise counsel and to be told of the latest discoveries in hygiene and psychology; but in absorbing information on correct feeding, the inculcation of good habits, the correct treatment for lying, stealing, or tantrums, their gaze is turned from cause to effect, and little or

no attention is paid to the education of the parents themselves. They may set such patterns of honesty, truthfulness, and good social relationships that the problems will be solved at the source and will not be reproduced by the children, who are observing and copying all that passes before their keen young eyes. The first requirement, then, for preschool education is parental efficiency.

The preschool child is educated in the home. In the six years before school age his physical equipment, his mental attitudes, and his social adjustments are so firmly set that all the later years can only



An examination in the summer round-up at Grand Rapids

modify them. In this period the responsibility for the growing child rests upon the parents alone—except where it may be shared in some degree by the kindergarten, or much more rarely by the nursery school, now in the early stages of its development in this country. During this time the child is made healthy or ailing, fretful or cheerful, friendly or sus-

stand by "mental hygiene," and how soon should it be applied? What is the proper diet for a child of 3? Of 9? Of 12 to 14? How much sleep and exercise are required at these ages? How are undesirable habits formed and how may they be broken? What should you do if your child lies? Steals? Has temper tantrums? Refuses to eat? Refuses to

the curriculum—and the programs prepared have not been adapted to that vast number of American parents who left school at the completion of the eighth grade or high school and are consequently not familiar with even the terminology which has been developed for this new science.

When the preschool children among whom its work began attained school age, and the national congress inaugurated its cooperative school program, the effects of home mismanagement became evident from a different angle—that of public opinion as represented by teachers and citizens. Almost immediately the new development under the name of the parent-teacher association became tremendously popular, and swept the membership of the organization to the total, in 1928, of 1,279,000 men and women.

No Longer Auxiliary to School System

As a result of this expansion the field of the association has gradually broadened. It is no longer a mere auxiliary to the school system, employed chiefly in securing material benefits for the school and in promoting friendly relations between parents and teachers, but it is a great school for adult education; and parents are learning that the greatest benefits which they can bestow upon their schools are sympathetic understanding, strong public backing, and a student body mentally and physically equipped to take advantage of what the school has to offer. And teachers are coming to realize the need for community cooperation and active interest, in order that education may have the full and unflinching support of the general public.

In the past 10 years, therefore, the congress has reverted in large measure



Prospect of school does not disturb them; the doctor says they are all right

picious, pessimist or optimist; great lessons, these, and all-important to his future career. But what of his teachers through this fundamental stage? Have his father and mother been trained for their profession?

Far too many parents are such only in a biological sense. The record of school health, the statistics of failure in school progress, and the vast problem of non-attendance fairly shriek the tale of parental inefficiency which spreads its blight over the childhood of our Nation. Tradition, gossip, guesswork, have been the textbooks, and upon them hundreds of thousands of men and women still rely for such guidance in the upbringing of their boys and girls as in emergency they may be driven to seek when maternal instinct has woefully failed to meet their need.

Unprepared for Life's Biggest Job

This is said with no desire to voice a baseless criticism but in the knowledge that it is true of thousands of fathers and mothers, earnest, eager, loving, but self-confessedly ignorant of and unprepared for their biggest job in life. To establish the truth of this statement it is necessary only to attend any large conference of average parents, listen to their inquiries and put to them some such questions as these: What is the proper physical care for a young baby? What do you under-

obey? The quack remedy usually administered by the parental practitioner is—a spanking.

At present parental education is well carried on by various agencies, but it has been too generally limited to groups of people who have had the advantage of higher education—for even there this important subject has been omitted from



Doctors, mothers, and children after the round-up examination at Mars Hill, N. C.

to one of its fundamental undertakings—the training of parents in the care and development of the preschool child. As the parent-teacher association, serving as a general assembly or forum for the discussion of general conditions, has been supplemented by study circles for parents and teachers of children of grade and high school age, so now the congress is actively promoting the organization of preschool

The preschool association, meeting usually in the school to which the children will ultimately go and from which many of the young mothers have but recently graduated, offers a general program which includes a talk on some important phase of child care or training, and also the opportunity for pleasant social contacts. The information thus received, given by a nurse or by a sympathetic mother of

each preschool association has a committee to care for the small children who would otherwise prevent the mothers from attending the meetings. Kindergartners, community nurses, experienced mothers, senior high-school students of home economics, Girl Scouts and Camp Fire Girls care for and entertain the little people, and the success of the nurseries has led in many instances to the establishment of kindergartens; the value to the children of even these infrequent social contacts, under proper supervision, has been demonstrated. Intelligent provision is made, of course, for open windows, and outdoor games whenever possible, and protection against contagion. Where this arrangement is made in connection with the study circle, meeting weekly, the advantage is correspondingly greater. This activity offers a practical suggestion for home-economics students in connection with their regular courses.

Committee Visits Mothers Otherwise Unreached

A second feature of the congress preschool association is the visiting mothers committee, through which the message of better parenthood is carried to the otherwise unreached, unorganized mothers who for various reasons can not leave their homes to attend meetings of any kind. "The homes of ignorant parents, left out of the march of progress," says the national preschool chairman, "will send their moral and physical germs into the community." The visiting mothers have a challenging part to play. There are homes with large groups of little children in which neither parent ever reads; there are husbands who do



A hundred per cent class at North School, Spencer, Iowa

associations and of classes or circles for the study of the preschool period. Although many are eager to enroll at once for intensive work, many others, especially among the younger mothers, are not yet aroused to the need for education, or from shyness or some other cause are not ready to enter the smaller groups.

older children, is of elementary but undoubted value, and experience proves that in many cases it leads rapidly to membership in the more valuable and helpful preschool circle.

Two interesting features of the congress preschool organization should be noted here. Under the national plan,



These children of Fort Smith, Ark., are ready for school and want the world to know it

not wish their wives to attend public meetings. But in spite of rebuffs the visiting mother, with tact, patience, and true sympathy, can in time secure an entrance; it may be through help given in illness, or by arranging for the care of the children, so that the mother may be released; or it may be simply by friendliness that overcomes timidity or indifference through the common tie, the love of childhood. Where there is a district nurse, her work is closely related to this activity. Literature in simple language is distributed, and wherever possible the mothers are gradually drawn into the neighborhood or school group.

The crying need of the day is for trained leadership for such associations and circles, a need too extensive at present to be adequately met by such training schools or classes for professional leaders as are now in existence. The congress, therefore, is developing with marked success a corps of volunteer leaders from its members who have had training and experience in teaching, and they are devoting themselves with enthusiasm to this service. Recognizing further that the parent-teacher movement reaches thousands of communities in which even such assistance is not available, the congress offers a carefully planned program for the preschool association, supplying material for the meetings, in the form of simple, practical papers, with questions to promote discussion and bibliographies for reference and further reading. Its official publication, *Child Welfare*, presents suggestions for activities suited to rural and small town groups as well as to those in larger centers.

Regular Courses for Preschool Circles

The national congress, through its bureau of child development, has also provided for preschool study circles regular courses of study which can be conducted by any intelligent man or woman without special training. These outlines, prepared by a woman of long experience in conducting study groups, are based upon authoritative books suited to the average parent, and they have been approved by the authors of the texts used. The courses consist of analyses, in clear, nontechnical terms, of each chapter, with practical and stimulating questions and with references to those portions of the text in which answers may be found. They carry also suggestions for discussion and references to other books, helpful, but not essential to the course, as well as a list of books and pamphlets in a wide range of prices, for further reading if desired, or as a guide to local libraries. These outlines have the advantage over courses based on independent articles, in that a complete consideration of the subject is possible, and the book may be studied in advance of the lessons. Six

of these outlines are now available, three running in *Child Welfare* and three in convenient leaflet form. Three deal with the preschool child, one with the spiritual training of children of all ages, one with the adolescent boy and girl, and one offers advanced study for groups which have completed an outline last year.

Reading Courses for Isolated Parents

In order to serve parents living in communities or the open country where even so little organization as that required by the study circle is impossible, the congress, through its committee on home education, has prepared reading courses, offering a list of carefully selected books and pamphlets with helpful comment, which may be studied at home. As several of the outlines mentioned above are based upon books included in these reading courses, they are proving very helpful as guides for parents reading alone. The chairman of this committee is also assistant specialist in home education in the United States Bureau of Education, and her advice and direction are at the service of all who may seek it in this connection.

Detailed directions for the organization and conduct of these various units for preschool education have been printed by the congress and are distributed free to all groups in membership, through the State offices, together with instructions for the accompanying committee work and sources of material for programs. A recently added service is a department in *Child Welfare*, conducted by a woman, a mother, for years a State chairman of preschool circles, whose training in college and as a post-graduate student, and as an official of her State congress renders her exceptionally able to answer questions on the care and training of little children. She not only conducts the monthly section in the magazine, but her personal advice is freely given to individual applicants.

Round-up Enlists Active Interest of Parents

As an illustration of what may be accomplished for the preschool child by parent-teacher cooperation systematically applied, the health activity of the congress, now widely known as "The Summer Round-up of the Children," may be cited. This is a campaign to send to school in the kindergarten or first grade a class of children 100 per cent free from remediable defects. It enlists the active interest of parents in assuming their proper responsibility for the health of their children, in securing for them a physical examination on or before May 1, in carrying out during the summer the corrective work found necessary, and in holding in the autumn a second inspection or round-up, to ascertain the extent to which the defects have been corrected.

Inaugurated in the late summer of 1925, it aroused a hearty response not only within the congress but from educators, health workers, physicians, and dentists. The results obtained in the 44 States thus far included in the registration have proved beyond question the value of the undertaking, and in each succeeding year it has adapted itself to local conditions, improving its simple system of operation. Health authorities in their campaigns have met with opposition and indifference, and at best a great majority of the homes are beyond the reach of the medical clinic. It was thought that the community spirit engendered in the parent-teacher association by the common relation of all homes to the school, and the absolute democracy of this great social and educational movement, might succeed where State and city had failed of complete success. By urging parents, as members of an organization pledged to cooperation in the work of the health authorities, more rapid progress may be made; if each school district will assure the health of its own pupils, the national health problem of the preschool child will be solved.

Close Cooperation With Health Agencies

The kindergarten or first grade was selected for this experiment because school entrance marks a turning point in the child's career; a new and great adventure confronts him; and at this point a special appeal may be made with confidence to parents who have hitherto been indifferent. If parents are thus early aroused to the need of preventive and corrective measures to fit a child for school, they are likely to carry their interest into the higher grades—and this view has been abundantly confirmed by the results. Maintaining the closest and most helpful cooperation with the regular health agencies, State, county, or local, the round-up also secures the personal activity of the parents or guardians in doing, or helping to do, that which too frequently has been held to be the business of the health authorities or of the school; it stimulates parent pride and puts parent power to work.

In State or agency health work, as a rule, the most easily reached are those who must look to the free clinic or the dispensary for help; when the children from a wider group are reached, it is through the school, with no direct contact with the home. Moreover, because of the extensive field to be covered by the professional health worker, in only a few instances can their work go beyond a first examination and the recommendations as to care and treatment which should follow. It has rarely been found possible for them to maintain the care over a period of months or to check up results before the opening of

school, so that much of the valuable service rendered goes to waste for lack of time, money, and personnel to follow through to a satisfactory conclusion.

It is this gap which the National Congress of Parents and Teachers is in a position to fill because of its unique position, working in and through the schools, and thus being able to secure action by the people instead of for the people—a course which is essential if the results are to be permanent. Enlistment in the campaign is open only to associations in congress membership, this requirement being made, not through any desire to limit the work of preschool examinations but in order that it may be possible to determine exactly what corrective value may be possessed by this type of organization, operating as it does, on a system differing from that of any other body.

Free Medical Treatment is Opposed

The congress, in the conduct of the round-up, is absolutely opposed to free medical or dental treatment; all children are referred to the family practitioners for correction of the defects reported; but in cases of financial inability the Red Cross or some other benevolent agency is asked to supply the necessary professional service.

Free medical and dental examination is recommended, for this reason: The summer round-up is a challenge to the parent-teacher association to perform a great service for its school, and the major object is a class 100 per cent free from remediable defects. If the physical examinations involve expense, many whose children seem well, or well enough, will hesitate before spending upon a visit to a doctor the money which would supply many small pleasures or comforts for a whole week; only the children of those rich enough to be able to disregard the cost and the children of the poor who may be gathered into free clinics will benefit.

Free Examination Leads to Treatment

It has been clearly demonstrated that when the free examinations are held in the school for all children, and parents are made aware of defects in their boys and girls, they no longer hesitate to seek the remedy, but place them at once under professional care. When this arrangement is clearly understood, medical and dental practitioners are rarely unwilling to give their services for the physical examinations. In many instances, it may be said, the parent-teacher association has raised a fund to compensate the doctors for the time given.

The first round-up, held late in the summer of 1925, immediately demonstrated its value and was accorded widespread attention by educators and health authorities. The Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund of Chicago, which from the first manifested a keen interest in the

undertaking, volunteered to tabulate some of the returns, and a group of 1,159 reports, correct in all their details as required by the campaign plan, was selected from 11 States, illustrating conditions not in the slums of a great city and not in a "problem" neighborhood but in a cross section of American homes. In this group of children, ranging from the rural school with 9 pupils to the city round-up of almost 400, were found 2,693 defects, an average of 2.4 per child. Among the 1,159 only 33 rated 100 per cent. Vaccination had not been performed for 482; 494 had carious teeth, and 477 had bad tonsils; 335 had adenoids and 232 had gland trouble; 718 were under weight, and only 80 rated over 90 per cent in general condition. Other defects included throat, eyes, ears, feet, posture, skin, lungs, heart, and 18 minor counts were listed. The simplified examination blank which was used was prepared by the education division of the American Medical Association.

Now the Major Health Activity

These returns from the 102 associations enrolled that year have served as a challenge to the entire organization, which has now made the round-up its major health activity. Its steady growth has brought the total registrations for 1928 up to between 2,500 and 3,000 associations in 44 States and the Territory of Hawaii, with every indication that its extension will eventually be limited only by the membership of the congress.

The United States Bureau of Education and the Children's Bureau have lent most valuable support from the beginning, sending out letters to educators and to heads of State health departments requesting cooperation, and supplying excellent educational literature for distribution to mothers. The American Medical Association has made generous contributions of campaign material, and the National Education Association has given wide publicity through its official journal. The highest appreciation is due to the doctors, dentists, public health and Red Cross nursing services, and to State departments of health, for services freely given, both in the examinations and in the follow-up work throughout the summer.

Permanent Nursing Service Encouraged

In addition to a steadily rising standard of health for the preschool child, this movement has brought about the establishment of permanent nursing service and of clinics, the extension of the examinations to children between 2 and 6 and up through the grades, and a recognition throughout the National Congress of Parents and Teachers that service to the preschool child is service to education in its best and fullest sense.

High School Offers Education for Retail-store Service

Retail selling, a two-year course open to third and fourth year girls in Eastern and Western High Schools, Baltimore, Md., is given in cooperation with seven important department stores which serve as laboratories for the course. The girls spend one afternoon a week and every Saturday, as well as the entire week preceding Christmas, as regularly employed workers in the stores to which they are assigned. Names of the practice girls are on the pay rolls of the stores and they do real work as saleswomen. The stores, to some extent, assume responsibility for instruction in their training departments or "on the job." Following each period in the store, oral or written reports are required, which furnish the basis for class discussion and instruction in the responsibility and technique of salesmanship. In addition to the valuable experience gained from their work, the wholesome influence of the high standards of punctuality, personal appearance, honesty, and dependability demanded by the stores is often apparent in the improved appearance and conduct of the girls. An important feature of the cooperative course, in some cases, is that the money thus earned enables the girls to remain in school until graduation.

A somewhat different form of training in service is carried on in several of the large department stores of the city for employed boys and girls, who receive regular instruction by public-school teachers assigned to this special work.



Campaign for Cleanliness in Mexican Schools

As part of a cleanliness campaign in Mexico launched by the department of rural education, clubs will be organized in rural schools composed of 12 pupils each who have dressed with the greatest care and cleanliness during a trial period of two weeks. Members have the privilege of wearing an insignia of the national colors and are permitted to elect their own officers and future members. The campaign contemplates inspection, by a hygiene committee composed of members of the club, of the school building and yard, furniture, and books, as well as of the pupils. The committee will cooperate with local citizens in sanitary measures for the community and will arrange entertainments to raise funds for the purchase of soap, toothbrushes, etc., for needy pupils. A white banner is awarded to schools showing satisfactory hygienic conditions.

The Rural School With and Without County Library Service

California School Districts May Pool Their Library Funds and Maintain County-Wide Circulation Under a Trained Librarian. Cost is Not Increased But Efficiency is Incomparably Greater Under Present Methods

By MAY DEXTER HENSHALL

County Library Organizer, California State Library

WHAT diverse pictures people draw of a school library! Was the school library of your childhood a place to which you turned intuitively for help and pleasure, or was it merely a collection of books, none too well kept and seldom used?

From the beginning of State government, California has made provision for school-district libraries. At first the funds were meager, but they gradually increased until at present it is possible for schools to be amply provided with money for libraries.

According to the annual reports of county school superintendents, in the 60 years from 1851 to 1911, hundreds of thousands of dollars were spent in accumulating books in more than 3,200 school-district libraries in the 58 counties of California. The school libraries in the aggregate outclassed the Library of Congress in numbers. Unfortunately there was no legal provision for circulating the books outside the boundaries of the respective school districts; consequently there was unnecessary duplication of books and an ever-increasing proportion of inactive ones.

It was made possible to correct the adverse conditions after 1911 by the California county free library law passed in that year, and by amendments to the school library law. These laws made it possible for boards of school trustees to pool their school-library funds and to authorize the county librarian to establish a central school library within the county library and to circulate the books to all schools that joined the county library.

Pioneer Spirit Favorable to Success

It was a new idea and school people looked at it askance. However, California is too young a State to be fettered by precedent and there are always persons with the pioneer spirit ready to blaze a new trail. In 1911 one county, whose librarian and county school superintendent were willing to take the initiative, succeeded in inducing seven rural schools to try out the plan. It was a success. The idea began to spread to other counties. The State Library employed a school library organizer who traveled over the State accompanied

by the county librarians of the respective counties explaining the plan to the school authorities.

In the beginning the plan was to serve strictly rural schools and improve and enlarge their very limited district service of books, maps, globes, and charts. In the 46 counties of California now having county libraries there are 2,848 active elementary and high school districts. Of these, 2,423 have joined county libraries. These districts include not only practically every rural school but also many town schools and about fifty rural high schools. County free library service to schools has reached a high stage of development in most of the counties of the State. Not only the town school branches of county libraries but also the most remote valley, mountain, and desert schools have up-to-date supplementary books for classroom use and well-selected children's literature for home reading. Besides books, maps, globes, and charts many schools are furnished by the county libraries with two or three magazines, educational and music records, stereographs, and pictures.

Old and New Systems Present Marked Contrast

Recently the chief of the division of rural education of the State department of education and the county library organizer of the State library made a survey of the school district libraries of 1 of the 12 counties of California which is without a county library, followed by a survey of county library service to schools in an adjoining county comparable in assessed valuation, population, topography, number of school districts, and money expended for school purposes.

These two counties are in the "Mother Lode," a mountainous section of California teeming with stories of the days of '49, abounding with tales of the famous bandit, Joaquin Murietta, dotted with ghost towns and deserted mines, filled with the glamour of Bret Harte and Mark Twain, possessed of the grandeur of the giant sequoias and the witchery of fairy-like caves and delighting the eye with rippling streams and forest-covered mountains gay with wild flowers. Nature has been equally generous to each, but in

library facilities these counties are as far apart as the poles. One is without community library service, struggling under the incubus of school district libraries with no medium for exchange of books; the other, pulsing with the life of a vigorous institution—the county library.

To visit one of these old-time school libraries is equivalent to a visit to all of them, for the type of books in all the libraries is the same, the only difference being in the accumulation of years. Among the libraries visited were some eight shelves high and crowded two tiers deep with large numbers of unused books.

Each library had many supplementary books. Some of them dated back to 1880 McGuffey Readers, Appleton Readers, and others with the stilted style of half a century ago were crowded in with numerous readers representing the changing educational ideas of many years. All these books should have been circulating and wearing out in service at the time they were serviceable, instead of becoming a worthless accumulation in one spot. Reference books which were far beyond the comprehension of elementary school children were found in great numbers.

Ability of Book Agents is Manifest

In almost every library an amazing number of inactive books by well-known authors caused the observer to wonder if they represented the fine reading taste of early days or simply bore tribute to the ability of book agents. Among the authors and books represented in these elementary school libraries were Darwin's *Origin of Species* and *Descent of Man*, Homer's *Iliad*, Hart's *American History Told by Contemporaries*, Bacon's *Essays*, Miss Mulock's *John Halifax, Gentleman*, the works of Carlyle, Emerson, Victor Hugo, Ridpath, Holmes, Dickens, Tolstoi, Cooper, Ruskin, Robert Louis Stevenson, Jane Austin, Owen Meredith, Shelley, Hood, Hemans, Kipling, Eliot, Hawthorne, Kingsley, Dumas, Irving, Shakespeare, Bulwer Lytton, Guizot, and all the poets from Chaucer to Tennyson.

Among all these books for adults was a sprinkling of children's books for home reading. There were some good children's books, but there was an appalling number of books in series dating from the Jonas Books, published in 1839, and the Pleasant Cove Series, published in 1874, to the Boy Scout Series and the Camp Fire Girls of the present day. The Dotty Dimple Series, Little Prudy Series, the Rollo Books, Oliver Optic, the Elsie Books, the Alger Books, Betty Wales Series, the Henty Books, and other series both ancient and modern greatly predominated in many school libraries over the helpful, delightful, wholesome type of children's books.

At the conclusion of the survey a backward look over this county showed a

panorama of school libraries similar in type of books and varying only in the number collected. There was a vast accumulation of unused supplementary books, reference books, and general reading which had outlived its usefulness in every school district. There were many books which were still of value if they could be circulated to other elementary schools, to high schools, and to communities. The one medium provided by law for circulating supplementary school books and general reading to the schools of California is the county library.

Library Supplies Supplementary Reading

Each teacher in the county without a county library was asked, "Have you enough supplementary books?" A negative reply was given each time. The same question was asked after we slipped across the boundary line into the next county. Each teacher replied emphatically in the affirmative with the comment, "We get our books from the county library." The schools of this neighboring county were also supplied by the county library with magazines to meet the needs of the children and educational magazines for the teacher. Phonograph records and stereographs were sent to the schools to aid the children in their studies. Maps and charts were brought up to date as rapidly as the funds would permit. Teachers and children had the advice and assistance of the county librarian.

Home reading was a strong point in the school service given by the county library. All the children of the county were doing home reading. Each school had its classroom collection. The teachers of the county supervised and kept a record of the children's reading. A 1-teacher school with 23 pupils and 8 grades showed a remarkable record in home reading. In the second semester 13 of the children had read from 11 to 20 books and the remaining 10 children from 20 to 42 books of the best type of children's literature furnished by the county library. In the first semester an equally remarkable record was made. Good books solved the question of leisure time for these children. Teachers find that pupils who have the reading habit advance more rapidly in their studies than those who do little general reading.

Using the question of cost as a measuring stick, it may be interesting to compare the expense of school library service in a county without a county library and in a county with a county library. The county school superintendent's report for 1926-27 in the county without a county library showed that the elementary schools had spent for library purposes \$2,134.76, and the high schools \$1,108.18;

a total of \$3,242.94. The annual report of the county school superintendent in the county with the county library stated that \$2,678.54 had been spent for library purposes by the elementary schools and \$881.40 for the high-school library, a total of \$3,559.94. The totals show that each county spent practically the same amount.

Because the inefficient, wasteful school district library system is still in vogue in one of these counties, the school library funds of that county brought merely a small amount of fresh material to each school, which was used for a limited time and then put to sleep upon the shelves of the respective school libraries to augment the constantly increasing number of dead books. Under the direction of a trained librarian all would be sent on to other schools to be used.

In contrast to this, the school library fund of the county with the county library is invested in books, magazines, music records, and apparatus for the use of the children of all the districts. Under the supervision of a trained librarian this material is kept in circulation and gives the maximum service for the money expended. Coordination of all the school district libraries through a central school library department within the county library has been an outstanding achievement of California county free libraries.

Recent Publications of the Bureau of Education

The following publications have been issued recently by the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior. Orders for them should be sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., accompanied by the price indicated:

Statistics of schools for the deaf, 1926-27. (Bulletin, 1928, no. 8.) 5 cents.

Major trends of education in other countries. James F. Abel. (Bulletin, 1928, no. 13.) 10 cents.

The land-grant colleges and universities, 1927. Walter J. Greenleaf. (Bulletin, 1928, no. 14.) 15 cents.

Bulletins of the Bureau of Education, 1906-1927. Edith A. Wright and Mary S. Phillips. (Bulletin, 1928, no. 17.) 10 cents. Complete list of the bulletins issued by the bureau from the beginning of the series, in 1906, to the end of 1927, with an index by author, title, and subject.

A primer of information about kindergarten education. Mary Dabney Davis. (City school leaflet, no. 30.) 5 cents.

Comparative status of secondary education in rural and urban communities. W. H. Gaumnitz. (Rural school leaflet, no. 44.) 5 cents.—*Mary S. Phillips.*

Graduate Study in Catholic Institutions

Courses leading to the master of arts degree were offered in 37 Catholic colleges and universities during the academic year 1926-27, as shown by a self-survey of Catholic institutions conducted recently under the auspices of the National Catholic Educational Association, department of colleges and secondary schools. Courses leading to the degree of master of science are offered in 31 institutions, and to the degree of Ph. D. in 17 institutions. During the past five years 2,093 A. M. degrees were conferred, 137 M. S. degrees, and 233 Ph. D. degrees. The master's degree was conferred in 46 subjects, and the degree of doctor of philosophy in 10 subjects. During the five-year period embraced in the survey the number of A. M. degrees conferred increased from 321 in 1922-23 to 543 in 1926-27; the number of M. S. degrees from 24 to 46; and the number of Ph. D. degrees from 34 to 61.

Danish Secondary Schools to be Reorganized

The Minister of Public Instruction of Denmark has decided to appoint a commission for submitting a proposal for the complete reorganization of the secondary educational system. This commission will be instructed to elaborate its recommendations on the following basis: The reorganization of the higher courses of the secondary schools so that the term of the gymnasium will be 4 years instead of 3 and the term of the real schools will be 2 years instead of 1. The proposal further contemplates the abolition of the middle school examinations although retaining the middle school itself as a three years' course coming after that of the public school. It is stated that this reorganization will involve certain economies to be embodied in a separate bill which will be introduced during the present session.—*H. Percival Dodge, United States Minister, Copenhagen, October 23, 1928.*

Seven European countries were visited during the past summer by the Yale University Glee Club. The tour was planned in cooperation with the Intercollegiate Glee Club Council of the United States, which has a membership of 236 organizations. Harvard University Glee Club visited some of the countries of Europe in 1921, but Yale is said to be the first university to send a glee club to Sweden and Germany. The club was greeted with great enthusiasm everywhere, and in many places it was given an official welcome.

Seattle Parents Strive to Reduce Failures and Eliminations

Fairview Parents Realizing Loss Their Children Suffered by Failures, Took Steps to Cooperate with Teachers for Prevention. Example Followed by Seattle Council and by State Branch of National Congress

By PEARL McKERCHER

Chairman Failure-Elimination Special Committee, Washington State Branch of National Congress of Parents and Teachers

FAILURE of promotion, repetition, and overage continue to occur in the schools, notwithstanding the herculean efforts of teachers and school officers. Impressed by the loss to their children that comes from such unfortunate conditions, the Fairview Parent-Teacher Association of Seattle undertook to aid in the solution of the problem by stimulating effort in the home to improve the scholarship of the pupils.

The need and the value of this work were soon apparent. The work has already been widely recognized. A large and efficient committee of the Fairview Association is assigned to it; the 62 affiliated associations in Seattle have formed a failure-elimination department of the Seattle Council of Parent-Teacher Associations; and a special committee of the Washington State Branch of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers has been organized to promote the work throughout the State.

Helpful Booklet was Issued

In their efforts to be mutually helpful, the mothers of the Fairview Association pooled their problems for cooperative study. Volunteers among them searched untiringly for facts and suggestions that gave promise of usefulness. School failures were treated impersonally and in the aggregate, but the difficulties of each individual were kept constantly in view. A booklet of pertinent papers with suggestive comment has been compiled. It is characterized by earnestness, thoroughness, and comprehension, and its value in inspiring and helping the members of the association has been far beyond the expectation of the compilers.

The failure-elimination department of the Seattle Council seeks to accomplish its purposes in four principal ways:

(1) The inquiring parent is aided in diagnosing the peculiar difficulties of her child, and appropriate remedial measures are suggested.

(2) Parents find help in the loan-paper shelf at the public library. Authoritative and usable home helps with pertinent information are filed there.

(3) Twenty-two professional educators and investigators especially qualified by

training and experience to lecture upon failure prevention are listed as speakers available to local associations throughout the city.

Monthly Meetings Were Carefully Planned

(4) Carefully planned and informative meetings are held regularly every month. The programs include discussions, questions and answers, and lectures. Among the appropriate topics that have been considered are these: Causes of failure; early detection of indications of failure; habits that the child should have upon entering school; habits that the eighth-grade child should have formed; what is necessary to keep a child physically fit; how to develop certain desirable traits; the problem child; the normal child; relation of absence, tardiness, and incomplete days to repetition of grade.

Explanations of approved methods of teaching the social subjects have been made; living illustrations have been presented of the five stages in the process of learning to read; other school subjects have been interpreted by school officers, with suggestions to the parents for assisting to avert failures.

The special State committee has only recently been organized. It is hoped that the eagerness of the parents of Seattle will be manifested throughout the State and that the service of helpfulness will be general.

This work has unquestionably aided many, and it will doubtless aid many more homes to render intelligent and indispensable cooperation with the teachers in preventing failure in the school and in life.

Art is placed on a parity with academic subjects in Lincoln Platoon School, South Bend, Ind., and it becomes an integral part of the child's school life. Pupils work in a room particularly adapted to needs of drawing classes, with necessary paraphernalia. Periods are short, and work is intensive. To develop an interest in civic improvement, architecture, and home planning, art study is related through problems to civic enterprises and interior decoration.

School Papers a Medium for Teaching Journalism

Classes in journalism are maintained in 48 of the 55 high schools in Kansas which issue school papers. The school paper is a project of the class in journalism in each of the 48 high schools, as shown in an article in *School Review* by C. M. Lockman of the Fort Scott (Kans.) High School. Seventy-two schools, or 83 per cent, of the 87 high schools in Kansas cities of the first and second classes are included in the investigation.

The school paper is issued biweekly in 34 of the 55 schools, and every week in 18 schools. In seven cities the school supplies news material each week for a page in the local paper. The majority of the school publications give only school news, but carry local advertising. In 20 places school organizations pay for display advertisements which they insert. Of the 55 high-school publications studied, 45 are self-supporting, 5 receive aid from the board of education, and 5 from other sources. Only 10 of the papers are printed in the school shop. For 11 of the papers the subscription charge is 50 cents, for 10 papers 75 cents, for 27 papers \$1, and for 1 paper \$1.50. The percentage of pupils subscribing ranges from 25 to 100, with a median of 51. Apparently the price of subscription has little effect upon the subscription list.

An annual, or yearbook, is issued by 43 of the 72 high schools reporting, and in 36 of the schools it is edited by the senior class. Advertising is carried in only 25 of the number, and financing is usually managed by the senior class through a play or some other activity.

Catholic Colleges Recruited from Catholic High Schools

Catholic high schools are supplying more than half the freshmen students attending Catholic colleges in the United States, according to a survey recently completed by the National Catholic Welfare Council.

Reports show that of 10,317 freshmen students attending 132 Catholic colleges 6,169 students, or 59.8 per cent, came from Catholic high schools; and 4,148, or 40.2 per cent, came from public high schools. In the 63 Catholic colleges for men, having a total enrollment of 7,068 freshmen students, 4,080, or 57.7 per cent, came from Catholic high schools; and of the 3,249 freshmen students in 69 Catholic colleges for women, 2,089, or 64.3 per cent, were from Catholic high schools. Fifteen colleges reported that all their freshmen students had come from Catholic high schools.

Commercial Work and Atmosphere in School Shop

Real job work is done in a machine shop owned and operated on a commercial basis by the school board of Salem, Oreg., with the purpose of giving high-school vocational students "training on the job." All machinery and tools are of standard quality, the instructor is a competent journeyman machinist, and the atmosphere of a commercial plant is maintained. Without solicitation a large amount of repair work is sent in, and it is done by the students under supervision of the instructor. This is paid for at commercial rates.

An onion-topping machine was developed in the shops to meet the needs of local growers, and the demand for it, even beyond the State, is greater than it is possible to supply. Activities of the shop have gradually expanded, and the students are taking care of much of the repair work of the school district. A sanding machine, which can be operated by a janitor and used during vacations in refinishing school desks, has been constructed in the shops; and a large number of park benches for use in school buildings and grounds have been built by the students, thereby effecting large savings in school expenditures for the district. Students trained in the shop are engaged in many industries in the city and vicinity, some are on farms, and others have entered engineering schools. During the 10 years of its operation, earnings of the shop have been sufficient to pay for all supplies and for every item of equipment



Albany, N. Y., Active in Diph- theria Immunization

Diphtheria immunization clinics were held in 27 public schools, in 14 parochial schools, and in other centers in Albany, N. Y., during the school year 1927-28, and toxin-antitoxin was administered to 8,275 children, of whom 2,261 were of preschool age. A diphtheria epidemic in one section of the city gave impetus to the campaign for immunization of all children of the community. The Albany County Medical Society, the Guild for Public Health Nursing, school and city nurses, and volunteer agencies cooperated with the health officer of Albany, the medical director of schools, and the school personnel in giving the treatment.



English taught by radio is announced by a broadcasting station of Lima, Peru. The course consists of 40 lessons occupying two half hours a week, and it is under a competent instructor.

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Public Education in Germany Shows Unusual Characteristics

In Marked Contrast to American Usages in Many Particulars. Trained Teachers in Excessive Numbers and Relatively Few New Appointments Are Made. Employment is Permanent After Probationary Period

By MAX ZIMPEL

Rektor der Hufnagelmittelschule, Frankfurt

[Statements Made in Conversation with the Editor of SCHOOL LIFE]

TEACHERS are trained in normal schools, and before appointment must have a certificate appropriate to the work they expect to do. Appointments are made by school boards, consisting partly of laymen and partly of professional men.

The number of persons in Germany who have been trained as teachers, largely under the old régime, is greatly in excess of the number that can be employed under present conditions. The birth rate was lowered by the World War and the actual number of children to be taught is greatly reduced; and lack of funds has forced the authorities to increase the number of pupils assigned to a teacher. Naturally the number of new appointments that are required is materially less than formerly. Unemployed teachers, like others without employment, receive small doles from the Government. About 2,000,000 persons are unemployed in Germany now. The Government maintains an unemployment insurance fund to provide for persons out of a job. Everybody employed must pay a part of his income toward it. With a salary of 8,000 marks, I pay 10 per cent.

The whole scheme of teacher training is undergoing revision, and when the new scheme is fully in effect primary and elementary teachers in Germany will have an education nearly equivalent to graduation from a university. Teachers may be removed for inefficiency during their first 10 years of service, but after that they are fixed for life. They can not be removed. Three-fourths of the teachers are men; one-fourth, women. They remain indefinitely in the same place; changes of location are practically unknown.

Experienced teachers are not subject to supervision by the school principal. His duties are administrative and clerical only. The superintendent is supposed to exercise supervision over the teachers, but he has from 500 to 600 teachers to supervise, and the supervision is practically nil, as compared with American practices.

At the age of 65 every teacher must be retired regardless of his mental or physical condition. He then receives as pension

three-fourths of his former salary. When he dies his widow receives two-thirds of that pension. His children are provided for if their mother is dead. Usually teachers are without interest in life after retirement; they are often anxious to die and most of them do die in a surprisingly short time. Teaching becomes such a part of their lives that when they can do it no longer they have nothing left to live for.

Security of tenure and absence of supervision leaves no motive for effort except the sense of duty. That is strongly developed in Germans of the right sort; but not all are of the right sort; and some teachers become lazy and negligent. There is no possible way of stirring them up or of getting rid of them.

Teachers' associations like the National Education Association do not exist in Germany. Teachers' organizations there are like labor unions and are political, not professional.

Similarly there are no parent-teacher associations like those of the United States. Parents' councils are provided for by law, and the members are elected like political officers. They have no legal authority and their influence depends upon the attitude of the teachers. In many schools no attention whatever is paid to them; but their influence seems to be growing.

At times, I have found it necessary to do things which were opposed by the teachers or by the patrons of the school. I thus became temporarily unpopular. But my position is safe and permanent. What others think does not affect my equanimity.

The *grundschule* is an established fact. All children must attend from 6 to 10. No private instruction is allowed at those ages. Schools are established in Germany for pupils of each religious faith. If the number of children is not sufficient for separate schools for Catholics, Protestants, Jews, etc., the children are taught together, but separated for religious instruction.

In my school there are 400 Protestants and 200 Catholics. They are taught together in academic subjects but divided for religious instruction, which is given by teachers of the several faiths.

SCHOOL LIFE

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Editor - - - - - JAMES C. BOYKIN

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DECEMBER, 1928

Libraries in General and Libraries for the Country

A MERE COLLECTION of books does not constitute a library. A hundred years ago it might have been so termed, but not now. Books stacked upon shelves, inaccessible and unknown, may be there till they molder, and still accomplish nothing. Precisely that has happened many times in the history of letters. Fine collections insufficiently equipped do not realize their possibilities, even though they be under an Ainsworth R. Spofford or a Justin Winsor.

A library must have books and a librarian; and it must have an adequate system of consultation and use. Count each of these a third of the worth of the whole. The librarian and his assistants and the system they maintain are essentially one; and to say that two-thirds of the library is in them is no exaggeration.

The librarian once had to be born for the business, and the supply was very uncertain. But the library schools, to which Melvil Dewey showed the way, beginning in 1887, have made it possible for libraries to function successfully with librarians that were trained, not born. Without them the multiplication of libraries which America has seen within the past 50 years would not have been possible.

The card catalogues, the reference shelves, the expert guidance and the convenient branches that are so familiar in modern libraries are also of recent growth. These methods that seem to us so natural and so indispensable have reached their present stage of perfection within a half century. In fact, it was only a few days ago that an American university professor was knighted by a European potentate for distinguished service as "the father of modern library science."

This designation is, of course, an expression of international courtesy; it ignores the achievements of Cutter, Dewey, Fletcher, Poole, Billings, and a dozen of their contemporaries, even if nothing be said of their predecessors. It is, nevertheless, an indication of the newness of library science that such a term is applied officially to a man now

living. But library science was a lusty infant long before the recently made knight began his library work.

The card catalogue, accessible to the public, is a key to the treasures of a library which is in many respects even more convenient and more effective than the open-shelf plan which some librarians consider the culmination of concession to popular need. Card catalogues have been used for more than 80 years certainly, but it appears that they were not originally accessible to general visitors. Apparently they were at first kept as office records and to facilitate the preparation of the printed catalogues, which were formerly considered essential. When an efficient method was devised for retaining the cards in place the public was freely admitted to the card catalogues, and the printed volumes were finally discontinued as an unnecessary expense.

Public libraries as we know them, that is, institutions of considerable size maintained at public expense for public use, have a history of scarcely more than a century. An association library at Castine, Me., was taken over by the town in 1827 and a tax was levied for its benefit; the Bingham Library in Salisbury, Conn., enjoyed occasional grants of money from the town at an early period; and public funds were used for the public library at Peterboro, N. H., from 1833.

The real beginning of the public library movement, however, dates from the Massachusetts law of 1848 which authorized the city of Boston to expend public money for a public library. Similar authority was extended to all the towns in the State in 1851. The Boston Public Library was opened in 1854.

Practically every city in the United States of more than 25,000 inhabitants has now a public library capable of supplying the needs of its population at least reasonably well. The few cities of this class which do not maintain public libraries have library service from other libraries. That means that the people of all the principal cities of the country have access to books, and that they are aided by skillful librarians and by efficient systems of administration.

Places with more than 2,500 inhabitants and fewer than 25,000 are not so generally supplied, but the American Library Association estimates that 94 per cent of the urban population of the country enjoy public library service. For communities of fewer than 2,500 inhabitants and for the open country a different story must be told. Eighty-two per cent of the rural population, or 42,152,291 persons in the United States, are said by the same authority to be without library service.

In this lies the great library problem of the time. Questions of administration and methods of public use have been

satisfactorily settled. All matters of technique have been determined. The cities are supplied. What can now be done for the rural population, whose needs are even greater than those who dwell in the cities? It is not a new problem, notwithstanding the little progress that has been made in its solution.

In 1827 De Witt Clinton, governor of New York, suggested to the legislature of that State that a small collection of books be supplied to each school district. In 1835 a law was enacted authorizing any school district to lay a tax of \$20 for the purchase of a district library with an additional tax for a bookcase; after the first year \$10 a year might be similarly raised.

Three years later the New York Legislature appropriated \$55,000 to be distributed to the several school districts for the purchase of district libraries. A like appropriation was made annually for many years, and for a few years it was increased to \$110,000 a year. Changes were made in the law from time to time, and in 1892 it was finally so modified that the school district libraries became school libraries in the proper sense.

In the early days high hopes were indulged for the usefulness of the district libraries, and they grew mightily in numbers and in the aggregate of volumes. In 1853 the State superintendent of common schools reported 1,604,210 volumes in the district libraries, but the number declined, and in 1881 only 707,155 volumes were reported.

Other States followed New York's example and enacted laws for school district libraries. Massachusetts and Michigan did so in 1837; Connecticut in 1839; Rhode Island and Iowa in 1840; Indiana in 1841; and Maine in 1844. Ohio, Wisconsin, Missouri, California, Oregon, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Kansas, Virginia, New Jersey, Kentucky, Minnesota, and Colorado did likewise in later years.

These laws contemplated libraries for adults rather than for school children, although the school district was the unit of organization. In New York, and probably in other States, the books were not kept in the schoolhouse but in the residence of the librarian, who was usually not the teacher.

The system was fundamentally defective in that it provided no proper organization. Books were often poorly selected, large numbers were lost, and failure of the system was inevitable. Although the distribution of such large numbers of books must have had beneficial results for a time, little remains now to show for the money expended. The school district libraries of the New York type have passed into history.

State libraries are maintained in many of the States, and "library extension" is usually an important function in them.

This means that an effort is made to reach communities which do not enjoy library service otherwise. "Traveling libraries" are largely employed. That plan in its modern application is said to have originated in the fertile brain of Melvil Dewey, and to have been first put in effect in New York State under a law enacted in 1892. Collections of books for general reading, comprising 50 or more volumes, are sent to central points for local distribution in a great variety of ways. After a stated time each collection is sent to a new locality and continues its travels so long as the demand for it continues. Many rural communities and rural organizations have thus had access to books which they would otherwise have no opportunity of seeing. More than 18,000 collections with 817,833 books were circulated in 1924-25, again using figures reported by the American Library Association. Some of the State universities and State agricultural colleges also render service of this kind.

"Package libraries" are extensively employed, usually by the same agencies that conduct the traveling library system, and for a similar purpose, namely, to supply the lack of reading matter in unfavored localities. The packages are made up of books specifically requested, or of books upon some special subject. The University of Texas is said to have sent out nearly 18,000 packages in 1925.

Notwithstanding the excellent results from the traveling libraries and the package libraries, their service is necessarily surrounded by limitations and difficulties. The whole circulation by such methods reaches but a small proportion of the rural population.

County libraries are unquestionably the most successful means which have yet been devised for reaching country people. This idea was vaguely expressed long before either trained librarians or transportation facilities existed to make such libraries possible. Indiana laws from 1816 to 1852, and a Wyoming law of 1886 are frequently cited to show the beginnings of the county library movement. Perhaps they were the beginnings, but they were not the effective beginning. That is to be found in Van Wert County, Ohio, and Washington County, Md., of which Hagerstown is the county seat. County libraries were opened in both counties in 1901, the Ohio library being apparently a little ahead of the other in point of time. Both were public libraries, primarily for the rural people, and both promptly established branches and deposit stations after the approved modern fashion. The "book wagon" brought into use in Washington County in 1905 for delivering and collecting books from outlying stations embodied an idea that is now utilized in every fully developed county library.

County libraries have grown apace in numbers since that time. About 260 are said to be in existence now, but in order to reach that number it is necessary to include many city and village libraries which are under contract to render service throughout their respective counties. The contract plan is not objectionable in itself, if it is necessary, but when the contract price is nominal the service is necessarily nominal too. One library named in this category receives only \$150 for its service to the county.

California has made greater progress than any other State in the development of county library service. Forty-six of the 58 counties are reported to have libraries efficiently serving all the people of their respective counties. Some of the remaining counties of the State are so sparsely settled and their population is so small that the maintenance of any such organization is obviously impossible.

It is not the present purpose to describe the methods or to measure the efficiency of the county libraries. That has been well done in previous numbers of *SCHOOL LIFE*. Articles by Edith A. Lathrop in the May number, Julia G. Babcock in the October number, and May Dexter Henshall on another page of this issue, set forth the details. Read those articles and be convinced that a way has been found to give the farmers of the land library advantages equal to those enjoyed by their brethren in the cities.

In writing this, the excellent work of the town libraries of New England has not been overlooked. They are town libraries, because the town is the unit of government; they perform the same function as county libraries elsewhere. It has long been said that one must leave Massachusetts if he would escape the influence of a public library. That is more true now than ever before.

Stimulates Reading of Children in Vacation

For reading and giving a brief sketch of 10 selected books, children in Georgia, members of vacation reading clubs conducted by the Georgia State Library Commission, are awarded a certificate. A list of 25 books, suited to the age and grade of the child, is selected by the commission, and books are loaned to the children, two books at a time for two weeks. A notebook for the sketches is provided by the commission. Reading of all 25 books entitles a child to a gold-star certificate. During the three summers that the plan has been in operation 735 members have been enrolled, of whom 335 have received certificates. Not one book of the 1,875 lent to club members last summer was lost or damaged.

Los Angeles Children are of Many Types

Of 248,582 children under 18 years of age whose records were obtained in a recent survey of schools of Los Angeles, 92 of every 100 are native born, but only 79 per cent live in homes where English is spoken. In most of the remaining homes the language spoken is Mexican or Japanese. Of every 1,000 children enrolled, the study reports that 808 are Caucasians; 130 are Mexicans; 30, Japanese; 25, Negroes; 3, Chinese; 2, Indians; and 2, Filipinos. Of the parents of the children 64 per cent are native born, but only 14 per cent of the foreign-born parents have become citizens of the United States. This means that 22 per cent of the parents of school children in Los Angeles are not citizens of the United States—a big problem in Americanization. This survey brought out the fact that 80 per cent of the 248,582 children are living with their parents, 18 per cent with relatives, and 2 per cent with friends—indicating that 1 child of every 5 in the schools of the city must live elsewhere than with his parents. Four-tenths of 1 per cent of the total enrollment, an aggregate of 1,009 children, were found to be migratory, and for the most part were living with their parents in automobile camps.



Porto Rican Schools Emphasize Industrial Work

To add variety to diet of the people and lessen the cost of food in the home a course in native foods has been introduced recently in high schools of Porto Rico. It is intended to be of practical value to students and to meet the needs of home makers of the island, as the average housewife is not acquainted with the food value and preparation of many native fruits and vegetables. In a second course, "The graduate's wardrobe," students receive instruction in selecting and making their own clothes for graduation and class-day exercises. The aim is to keep the cost of graduation within the family income. In addition to the advanced training given to students in making their own clothing, the expense of graduation is decreased, and, as cost of the material is spread out over a longer period, strain on the family pocketbook at the close of the school year is lessened.



Oriental history as a separate subject will be taught this year in high schools in the Philippines. The course includes study of China, Japan, India, and the Malay countries.

Social Environment is the Laboratory for Home Economics Study

Teacher Who Confines Her Activities to Her Classroom Does Not Take Advantage of Her Opportunities. The World About Her is Full of Fruitful Lessons. Business Establishments and Governmental Agencies Constantly Present Problems for Solution. Cooperation With Public Schools and Charitable Organizations Offers Valuable Experience. Conventions and Conferences Give Helpful Contacts With Practical Affairs

By MINNA C. DENTON

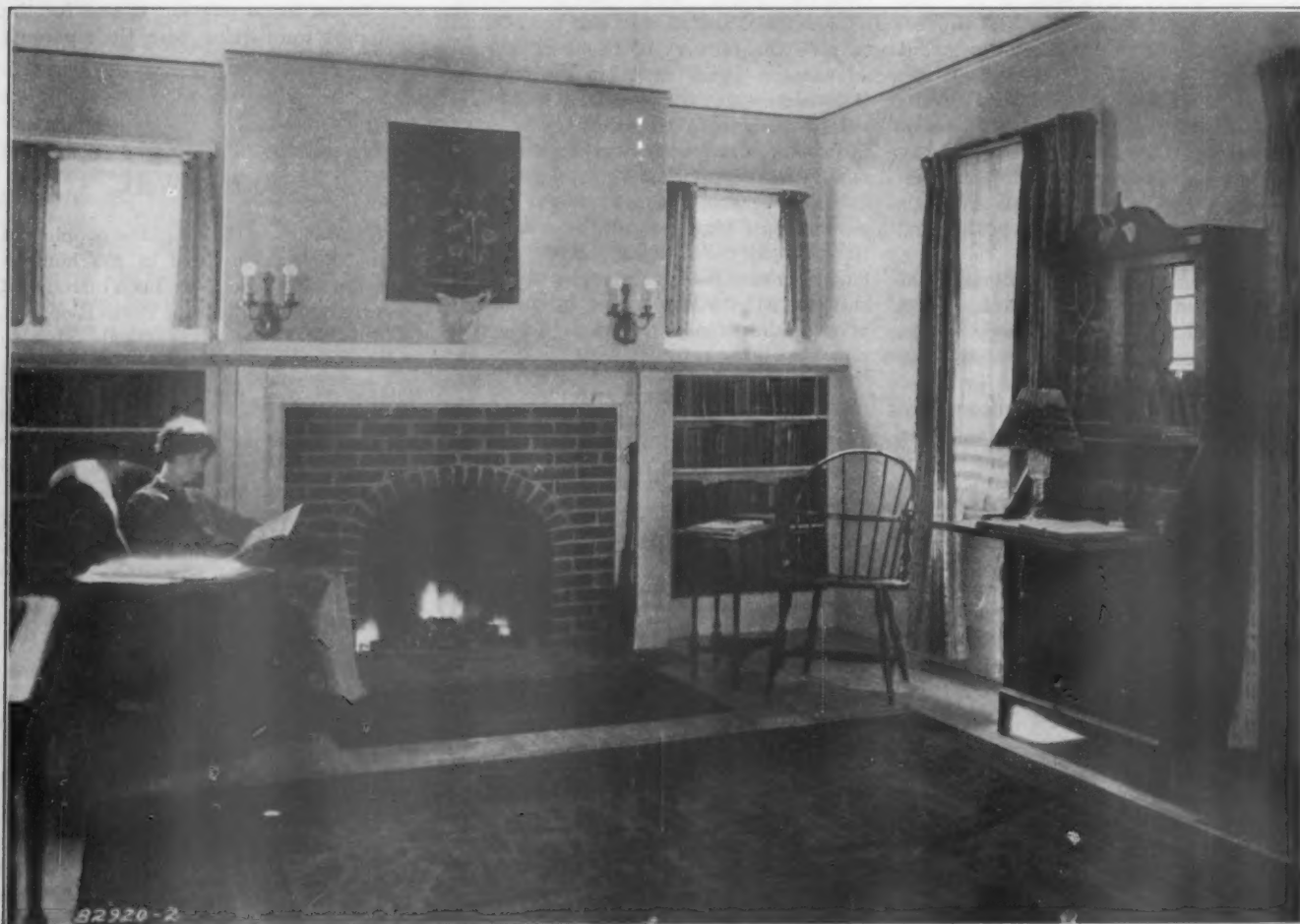
Head of Home Economics, George Washington University

FROM the very beginnings of the home economics movement, it has been evident that the short-sighted teacher who would confine her activities to the four walls of her laboratory, would have a hard time of it. What are "cooking classes" for if they can not upon occasion give real tea parties and serve honest-to-goodness meals for their colleagues, families, the teaching staff, the school board, other distinguished guests, possibly the community at large? What is the good of a "sewing class" that does not make clothes which can actually be worn—proudly we hope, willingly we trust—by members of the class and their

families and friends at least? Is there money to be raised by the student body for some worthy charity or community need, or by a civic-minded club? Enlist the services of the home economics classes; it will be good practice and good advertising for them.

Some public school systems have required that home economics departments become self-supporting by turning regularly rendered student services into money to pay for equipment and supplies. But this has not often been true of college classes. The college instructor, instead, gives individual students participation in practice-house projects; or perhaps they

get the opportunity to earn money for themselves, as occasional or part-time workers in commercial establishments or public institutions. If this opportunity is awarded upon the basis of high quality of class work, so far from carrying a stigma it becomes a boast even upon the lips of the girl with least need of economic assistance, "I have been waitress three times this month at Y. W. banquets," "We have more repeat orders than we can take care of for our molasses wafers and bridge tea sets." When the college home economics department is large enough it organizes to take advantage of these desires of students for occasional



A living room furnished by the home economics class of Iowa State College was a part of the Better Homes Demonstration

experience in selling their services. Then it may maintain a regular cooked food service or a clothing shop or novelty bazaar of some type, open to the college community or to the general public, as may seem best. Thus the home economics departments offer field contacts by the same general method as do medical, agricultural, and engineering colleges.

It is a long time since we contented ourselves mainly with production of what the economist calls "form utilities." And it is equally true in the more nearly academic aspects of home economics that real problems make ideal opportunities for training students. Real up-to-the-minute everyday problems, the answer to which must be had by responsible working agencies of the immediate environment—these are best for the purpose. Here is a proposed ration submitted for criticism to the Red Cross nutrition service, and it is to be distributed for some months to Florida families made dependent by the hurricane. How nearly ample is its provision of calories, protein, mineral salts, vitamins? What suggestions for improving it without increased outlay? And the answer must be returned within 48 hours.

Knowledge of Service Gives Zest

The knowledge that their labor will be of some small service, at least, in helping to check more experienced workers, gives them zest for the problem. The heavy outlay in time required arouses their interest in comparing the results of short-cut and more elaborate methods of calculation, such as are now being formulated in several research centers. Then, too, such

a problem interests the students in other projects of the Red Cross nutrition service, the qualifications and opportunities for its educational workers, its summer institute or training school, held in Washington, to which if properly qualified and recommended they may perhaps be admitted.

Or, one of the divisions of the United States Bureau of Home Economics is collecting family expense schedules by the estimate method, and needs an additional number from the business and professional groups of consumers. What greater incentive to the class studying economics of consumption problems than to be allowed to contribute the cream of their efforts.

Research Specialists Employ Student Assistants

The graduate home economics student who is properly qualified may find larger opportunities in certain Federal research services, such as the Bureau of Home Economics or the Bureau of Chemistry. It is not an uncommon practice for Government research specialists to acquire at nominal salary student assistants who can be of real service in the collection or analysis of data, and whose reward comes chiefly as training in research methods. When the research project under way and the student's contribution to it prove acceptable, university credit may be obtained for such experience; at least, this has proved true of a number of workers affiliated with different universities.

The home economics specialist in the Bureau of Education, the head of the home economics division in the Federal Board for Vocational Education, the Chief of

the Bureau of Home Economics in the Department of Agriculture have already proved both by their words and their works their willingness to cooperate in such research projects. Not the least among the advantages offered by these arrangements is the use of unequaled library facilities, and often the opportunity to study both published and unpublished assemblages of data which are absolutely unique.

Occasionally it is even possible for a properly qualified student to use special Government apparatus which would otherwise be idle, in working at some problem of general interest. For example, one student was curious to know whether the water-glass test made possible by inclusion of a small quantity of egg white in baking powders, does really measure deterioration, as sometimes claimed on labels. She succeeded in demonstrating by use of the Chittick apparatus in one of the Bureau of Chemistry laboratories that it does not always do so.

Government Officers Helpful to Students

Nor do the Federal and State research specialists limit their kindly interest in home economics training to participation of students in research activities. The ultimate consumer, for whose good we all labor, sometimes finds herself slightly bewildered in trying to grasp the research point of view, and hardly knows what it is all about. Consequently the researcher counts as his allies those home economics students who have been brought up to know what food, textile, and economic research is about, and hopes to use these



A home economics class of boys demonstrated their skill in the Better Homes Campaign in Minneapolis

interested consumers as a sort of liaison between himself and the unscientific feminine mind. Often notable favors are granted. Tea inspectors may graciously consent to demonstrate quality and types of teas; the author of a bulletin on grading of vegetables or butter or on marketing

gas bills by using a thoroughly insulated gas oven; or on the advantages and disadvantages of a mucic acid baking powder; or on the thread and fabric textile strengths of various types of cotton sheetings. Although we may not see fit to put a graduate student in the pay of

inspectors, which have put that manufacturer into court, and what happens to him there. Arousing public interest favorable to sanitary laws against consumer exploitation is one of the opportunities of home economics departments, and one in which they receive encouragement and cooperation from public officials.

Trade associations of manufacturers present both problems and opportunities which demand our respectful attention. To illustrate: A visit to the research laboratories of the National Canners or of the National Institute of Dyeing and Cleaning, considerably enlarges the mental horizon of the college student. Opportunity of testing and judging recipes entered in a nation-wide prize contest under the auspices of the National Association of Bottlers of Carbonated Beverages, gives new ideas to the class which has just made a laboratory study of beverages.

Frequent Cooperation with Public Schools

Cooperation of home economics departments with the public schools is almost universal. Senior and graduate students ready to make their teaching contacts, can give and receive assistance in a score of ways, whether they are helping to weigh and measure at the clinics, or using Murdock's scale for the sewing teacher, or assisting the principal to find out what the children of certain schools do at lunch time, or how junior high school girls help their mothers at home—or whether they simply practice teaching when no other substitute is available. There are plenty of other chances for social service which afford the mature student valuable experi-



Home economics students assist the Red Cross nutritionist in her public-school work

habits of consumers, the men in charge of food legislation or sanitary law enforcement, will upon suitable occasion perform like services. Think of the inspiration to a foods class, of hearing the author of the pure foods law relate its history!

Nutritional problems of the moment are brought to home economics departments from the nurseries and nursery schools, from the hospitals, the malnutrition clinics, the diabetic and nephritic clinics, from the public health departments. Some one is wanted to study how intarvin, or salt-free diets, or bran, or vegetable juices, may be made more palatable or nutritious. If we have well-equipped nutrition laboratories and excellent staff chemists, they will present even more complicated problems in feeding.

Workers Study Psychology of Feeding Children

Mothers and baby specialists demand more attention on the part of the trained home economics worker to the psychology of feeding the young, especially to that numerous progeny who do not choose to eat green vegetables, vegetables at all, or (oh, dreadful heresy!) even to drink milk. Manufacturers have always besought us to find new uses for their products—minute tapioca, steel wool, or mercerized cotton, for example. When they present a really valuable problem, our students accumulate interesting data. Let us illustrate at random—on the saving in

a manufacturer who must presently come into court and would like to buy the right kind of evidence, there is no reason why we should not let her report to her class the investigations of Federal Trade Commission, Senate committee, or Department of Agriculture, or public health



Help of college students of home economics is sometimes utilized in Government laboratories

ence. Rural home demonstration agents and city juvenile court officers often ask for assistants in their work of turning girls toward home activities, or of enriching activities in established homes.

Organizations of associated charities welcome these young enthusiastic student teachers, for their agents agree that instruction and establishment of ideals are sometimes more needed in the homes of their clients than financial assistance. And what better training can those young women have than that which comes from putting their theories into practice for the benefit of persons to whom their ministrations are as help from Heaven. Home economics girls are encouraged to give aid to those who need it, and many a deserving family has unexpectedly enjoyed a real Christmas through their thoughtful activity.

The federated women's clubs, and various unfederated ones, are apt to demand a program from our classes regularly. Sometimes it is pectin jellies that they want to know about; sometimes it is waterless cooking; sometimes grading of milk. Sometimes they are upset by the discovery that a local baker has been giving them low-grade white flour plus a little bran and caramel as graham bread, and they want a definition (with demonstration) as to what graham bread is. Very likely we may find that the baker wants to know the same thing, too. And then our friends in the Department of Agriculture (or in the State health, food, and drug department) help us so far as they can, and stand by us at our demonstration. Even though we do not at once frame a legal standard for graham bread, we do get a much better understanding on the question by all concerned of the relative merits of breads which contain varying proportions of white and of graham flour.

Data for Home Equipment Survey

The home equipment survey of the federated women's clubs gave home economics departments which were willing to assist an excellent opportunity to study methods of doing field work, to collect new data, and to make contacts with manufacturers, public utilities men, the club women themselves, and the expert statisticians in their employ at headquarters. Better homes week offers a different but equally valuable opportunity. The newly organized consumers' club, the aftermath of that entertaining and enlightening book, "Getting Your Money's Worth," sends out material which affords a variety of testing problems suitable for home economics classes and at the same time offers a market for trustworthy results. The local better business bureau is often glad to use student services in its task of evaluating the

Definition of Secondary Education and Its Functions

By RALEIGH SCHORLING

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EDUCATION is life. Secondary education is merely a sector, and it is illogical to expect to arrive at a definition of secondary education in terms of functions that would not in large measure be duplicated in definitions of other school units. There are, however, functions that can be brought a little nearer to the surface; certain functions should at this period be *conscious* aims to the pupil. With this understanding we may proceed with our definition.

Secondary education concerns itself with:

(1) **The continuation of (a) establishing desirable health habits; (b) fixing recreational interests that will carry over into adult life; and (c) practice in good citizenship.**

(2) **Giving conscious practice in problem solving. Here we are concerned with attention on the part of the learner to the improvement of study habits and the technique of reflective thinking.**

(3) **Making the pupils aware of the complexity of life in its varying needs, abilities, and interests, and guiding him to adjust himself to this situation so that he may become a positive contributing factor to society.**

(4) **Giving such information, adding such attitudes, developing such concepts, fixing such skills as are necessary for this adjustment.**

Note that the key words are *conscious* and *aware*. These faintly, and only faintly, set off the secondary school. Obviously no unique function is left for the early years of the college of literature, science, and the arts.

Recently a committee which was collecting material for a report to the Department of Superintendence asked the writer for a definition of secondary education. He will be glad to receive criticisms of the definition here proposed. Publication sponsored by the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, J. B. Edmonson, chairman.

truth of advertisements of women's wear, foodstuffs, and household equipment.

Conventions and State or National conferences of dietitians, chemists, home economics teachers, social service workers, certain lines of manufacture and public service, give us those valuable contacts with practical affairs which are the most effective remedies for stale theory. In very truth our environment is indeed our laboratory—if we be teachers whose primary interests are the activities of the American home.

The early years of the junior high school should consist of a group of courses that are survey and exploratory, in which we should not worry too much about continuity and logic. In contrast, the upper years of the senior high school should consist of a group of basic and integrated courses in the several large divisions of learning—biological sciences, physical sciences, literature, art, including music appreciation, mathematics, and the social studies. For example, the Columbia survey course, if well taught, could easily be stepped down to the senior high school. In like manner, if teachers were trained to give the material found in such a book as "The Nature of the World and Man" in such a way as to show relationships, this also would be an excellent course for the senior high school. Similarly, we need a correlation of plane geometry and logic.

Then, too, there should be a guidance program through the home-room teacher, the personnel adviser of a small group. In this there should be a very careful survey of the measurements and the interests of the individual. An effort should be made to discover a permanent interest, or an interest that seems to be permanent, and this interest may well serve as a core of the individual student's work. It would be a mistake for the high school to give detailed training to develop skill for industrial needs. This would be deceptive, for jobs related to almost every field in the modern industrial world can be learned by workers in a very short time.

Finally, it is not very important to frame a definition of secondary education. Many substantial considerations are more important than definitions. We need—

- (1) To use the day for work.
- (2) To get away from the 1-book notion.
- (3) To provide a supplementary library in every classroom.
- (4) To provide flexible furniture.
- (5) To recognize that high-school children love to work at worth-while tasks.
- (6) To stop trying to teach pupils things which they can not learn, or do not wish to learn.
- (7) To recognize that nearly all disciplinary troubles are due directly to our inability to find proper tasks for the pupils.
- (8) To seek to give every pupil the thrill that comes with doing some task so well that the giving of a mark is superficial.

Is the Junior High School Realizing its Declared Objectives?

Many Forces Have Contributed to Movement for Educational Reorganization. Establishment and Wide Extension of Junior High Schools Have Come in Less Than 20 Years. Outstanding Purposes Are Better Scholarship, Retention of Pupils, Exploration and Guidance, and Better Teaching. Investigations of Results not Uniformly Favorable. Realization of Purposes Depends Upon Suitable Organization of Schools

By J. ORIN POWERS

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IT IS CONTENDED that the junior high school is better adapted than the older organization to the needs of a democratic society through increased retention of youth in school, economy of time, the recognition of individual differences, and guidance in matters of occupational and further training; that it is set up in accordance with the nature of the boys and girls of the ages represented; that it motivates the pupil to a superior scholastic performance; that it improves the disciplinary and socializing opportunities of the school, etc. It is apparent that in so far as they are justifiable these claims become the special purposes of the junior high school."

Thus, in substance, Dr. Leonard V. Koos enumerated the peculiar functions of the junior high school in his introduction to a study by this writer of "Instructional Outcomes in a Typical City System."

The junior high school is the product of a long series of events that culminated in the movement frequently described as the reorganization of secondary education. The attempt has been made to place the beginnings of the junior high school in the writings of Comenius, who divided child life into four periods and assigned an appropriate school to each. The gymnasium in his plan was for pupils of ages corresponding to those of our junior-senior high schools. Others have pointed out that the "English classical school," later known as the "English High School," established in Boston in 1821 possessed many of the characteristics of the modern junior high school.

Germs of Idea in President Eliot's Address

Most of us, however, are content to trace the beginnings of the forces which led directly to the junior high school reorganization to the address of President C. W. Eliot before the Department of Superintendence in 1888, entitled "Can School Programs be Shortened and Enriched?" Any summary of developments since that time recounts the work and

influence of such committees as the Committee of Ten (1893), Committee on College Entrance Requirements (1899), Committee on Six-Year Courses (1907), Committee on Economy of Time (1913), the establishment of the pioneer schools at Berkeley, Calif., in 1909, and the spread of the movement until in 1926, 74 per cent of American cities over 100,000 in population and 60 per cent of the cities of 30,000 to 100,000 population had established separate junior high schools.

Statements of Purposes Substantially Agree

Statements of the distinctive purposes or the "peculiar functions" of the new unit have appeared from several sources. They are in substantial agreement as a whole. The summarized enumeration by Doctor Koos in the opening paragraph of this article is representative. Although it does not specifically include some purposes frequently mentioned, such as prevocational exploration, bridging the gap between elementary and secondary schools, training in citizenship, etc., all of these are clearly implied.

The movement for reorganization is now well under way. It is appropriate to examine the results as they have been shown by studies of competent inquirers, and to consider to what extent the distinctive functions have been realized. Obviously not all of the acceptable functions may be considered within the scope of this paper. The functions selected for especial treatment here are: (1) Securing better scholarship, (2) retention of pupils, (3) exploration and guidance, and (4) providing conditions for better teaching. These functions are crucial to any plan for reorganization of secondary schools. The bearings and implications arising from realization of at least three of them upon the problem of articulation of the junior and senior high-school units of the secondary school are apparent. If better scholarship is attained through reorganization, there need be no apprehension that the junior pupils will not be sufficiently prepared for work in the senior high school. If more pupils be retained in school, the problem of adjustment in the senior high school becomes more complex.

Unless guidance in the junior high school be functional the lack of articulation between the two units is bound to appear.

The matter of securing better scholarship has a peculiar appropriateness in any proposal to evaluate the junior high school. First, scholarship is intimately related with the realization of several other functions. Second, the instruments for measurement of scholarship are at hand—namely, standardized tests. Third, the acceptability of high standards of scholarship is generally recognized and any system or plan of education which results in high standards of scholarship is likely to be approved, whatever its apparent weaknesses may be. On the other hand a system or plan which fails in scholarship may properly be condemned whatever its apparent virtues may be. Some such condemnation has undoubtedly fallen upon the junior high school even in its early stages, arising, in part at least, from senior high-school administrators and teachers.

Comparisons of Scholarship Under Different Organizations

Studies of comparative scholarship in junior high schools and in nonjunior or unreorganized schools may be made in three ways: (1) By a comparison of the scholarship of pupils enrolled in the two divisions of a city system partially reorganized; (2) by comparison of scholarship in reorganized systems with unreorganized systems in different cities; and (3) by comparison of scholarship before and after reorganization in the same city. The first of these methods is probably best since fewer extraneous factors are likely to enter into the comparisons in a single city at a given time. In spite of the logic in a comparison of scholarship by performance of pupils upon standardized tests, other bases have been used. Thus Stetson, in one of the first comparative studies of scholarship reported, used teachers' marks in English and mathematics as the basis of comparison and found some slight differences in favor of the junior high schools in Grand Rapids. Knowing the unreliability of teachers' marks as 'we do, we are inclined at

once to question the validity of such comparison. The principal consolation to be derived is that so far as teachers' marks are concerned, nothing appears to be lost in the junior high school.

Studies in Rochester and New York

Two rather notable studies, purporting to measure relative scholarship, have been recently reported in the junior high school surveys of Rochester and of New York City. The major comparisons in each case were of the percentages of failure reported by teachers of pupils in junior and nonjunior schools. In these studies a high percentage of failure was interpreted to indicate a low level of scholarship and a low percentage of failure was interpreted to indicate a high level of scholarship. Comparisons were drawn upon the ninth grade level in both cities and also upon the tenth grade level in New York City. In Rochester the schools compared were located in similar districts. The comparisons show remarkably higher percentages of failure, interpreted to mean lower scholarship, in the nonjunior or first year of the 4-year high schools running as high as three times as many failures as in the ninth grade of the junior high schools. One is surprised at the frequency in which 20, 25, and 30 per cent of the pupils in the various subjects of study fail in the ninth grade of the 4-year high schools of these large cities. The percentages of failure in the junior high schools, ranging from 2 to 20 per cent, seems high enough.

Percentage of Failure Not Reliable Measure

Lest any misapprehension be placed upon my interpretation of these large differences in percentage of failure, however, let me state now that in my estimation percentage of failure in school subjects is no more a measure of relative scholarship than are the unreliable teachers' marks upon which they are based. The interpretation which I would place upon the differences in percentages of failure reported in Rochester and in New York City is merely that the teachers in the junior high schools had been convinced that too many pupils are failed in the ninth grade of 4-year high schools and these teachers therefore proceeded to fail fewer pupils. The fact that the teachers were right about it is borne out in some measure by the fact that the percentages of failure in the tenth grade reported in New York City were approximately equal in junior and nonjunior high schools, although many more pupils had been failed in the ninth grade in the 4-year high schools. We are inclined to believe, in this situation, which appears to be typical, that many more of the pupils might do creditable work in the senior high school if they were permitted to do so. It is an illustration of an incidental

value derived from the junior high school that junior high school teachers may be convinced of the need for a liberal interpretation of standards of promotion, although the traditional idea of maintaining high standards is through high pupil mortality.

The other phase of the scholarship comparison in Rochester which deserves attention was the comparison by objective tests of the performances of ninth-grade pupils in algebra and Latin. In these comparisons the junior pupils were uniformly higher. We note, however, that these subjects had been introduced earlier into the junior high schools. Since one of the original proposals for enrichment of the curriculum in grades seven and eight was the introduction of subjects commonly taught only in the high school, it is gratifying to learn that where such subjects are so introduced the pupils profit by the study of them.

No Significant Differences in Minneapolis

A third comparative study of scholarship was made by Porter in Minneapolis. In a carefully controlled program of testing, Porter compared the achievement of 200 junior pupils with that of 200 pupils in departmentalized seventh and eighth grades. The pupils were of similar nationalities and economic status. Each junior pupil was paired with a nonjunior pupil of equal intelligence quotients. A boy was paired with a boy and a girl with a girl. Standardized tests were used in reading, spelling, arithmetic, geography, and history. The comparisons were of point scores and achievement quotients. No significant differences appeared. In fact, the results in the two types of schools are so similar that one is tempted to the conclusion that the scholarship is identical. As a further measure Porter compared the senior high-school records of 100 pupils who had their seventh, eighth, and ninth grades in a junior high school with those of 100 nonjunior pupils in North High School, Minneapolis. Again the results are practically identical. If there was any difference in the preparation of junior and nonjunior pupils to do the work of the senior high-school grades, the teachers failed to show it by their marks. To some these results may be satisfying. It should be noted, however, that there is in these studies but little evidence of better scholarship of junior high-school pupils. And better scholarship is exactly what the junior high school proposes.

More Comprehensive Program of Testing

Somewhat as a result of this preliminary testing and for other reasons it was decided in Minneapolis to enter upon a comprehensive program of testing in the junior high-school grades. The simple expedient of giving the same tests

at the same time in reading, arithmetic, geography, and history was adopted. Without attempting to burden this article with statistics the results of this testing will be briefly stated:

Junior Pupils Lower in Scholarship

A significant difference was discovered between the scholarship of junior and nonjunior pupils as measured by standardized tests. For the city as a whole the junior pupils were found to be uniformly lower in scholarship than nonjunior pupils in the same grades. Pupils in the junior-senior high schools were lowest in scholarship, and pupils in the older junior high schools were lower than in junior high schools recently established. The differences were not great but large enough to be unmistakably significant. When comparisons were made upon an achievement basis, using the achievement quotient instead of the point score, the differences were not so apparent, but a difference in the general level of scholarship was undeniable.

To the enthusiast for junior high-school reorganization these results, if typical, must be the cause for some concern. This concern led us in Minneapolis to investigate some of the other functions of the junior high school to discover, if possible, the reason for the apparent inferiority of junior high-school scholarship. The first of these to suggest itself was the retention of pupils, for if the junior high schools retained in school more of less capable pupils the expected result would be to lower the general level of scholarship.

Junior High Schools Hold Pupils Better

Retention, like scholarship, may be studied in three ways, namely, in parallel systems in the same city, in parallel systems in different cities, and before and after reorganization in the same city. The problem offers some difficulties, but it is susceptible to objective treatment through the obvious method of counting noses. Studies of the retention of pupils previously reported by Douglass, Stetson, and Childs tend to show slight improvement in retention of pupils in junior high schools and in each case an improvement in the retention of boys in the junior high schools. None of these studies, however, take into consideration the ages of the school-leaving pupils. Obviously no claim can be made for the superior holding power of the junior high school if the pupils are retained in school by compulsory attendance. Our study of retention in Minneapolis revealed the following significant conclusions:

1. That the carry-over of pupils from the seventh grade to the eighth grade was better in the junior high schools. The carry-over of pupils from the eighth grade to the ninth, or, across the tra-

ditional gap, was actually better in non-junior schools. This was equally true after elimination of new enrollments in each system.

2. That the junior high schools actually retained fewer pupils beyond the compulsory attendance age.

3. That superior attractiveness of junior high schools to pupils, assumed to be a factor in retaining them longer, appeared to be of no importance whatever.

4. That fewer pupils got out of the junior high schools by leaving school.

Economy of Time Apparently Accomplished

The apparent paradox of this last finding leads us to the real explanation of the matter of retention of pupils in junior high schools. Apparently overage pupils get out of the junior high schools more rapidly than from the same grades of traditional schools. The only way they get out other than by leaving school is by promotion. Investigation of promotion by percentages of failure showed unmistakably more rapid promotion rates in the junior high schools which, incidentally, indicates that the function of economy of time is to an extent being realized. These facts explain in large measure the differences in scholarship.

Additional explanation of the differences in scholarship appeared from a comparison of the intelligence levels of junior and nonjunior pupils. A comparison of three successive entering classes showed that pupils were entering the seventh grade of the two systems at the same intelligence levels. When comparisons were made in the eighth grade, however, significant differences appeared, both in mental ages and in intelligence quotients. The differences were in exactly the same relation as the results in scholarship. Thus it appears that these considerations explain the differences in scholarship. But, lest we go too far, explanation of these differences does not excuse them. It appears that the realization of one function imposes a handicap in the realization of another, which handicap the teachers fail to remove through the better facilities offered by the junior high school. We recall again that the junior high school claims better scholarship. That better scholarship, we believe, can yet be attained in spite of the handicap imposed.

Better Vocational Guidance is Claimed

The third function to be considered is that of exploration and guidance. During the course of our investigation in Minneapolis it was frequently suggested that although the results in scholarship were not materially greater, nevertheless the junior high school was achieving other values, among them better guidance of pupils. This claim led us to attempt an investigation of results in vocational guid-

ance. Specifically, we attempted to discover whether or not the vocational choices of pupils were conditioned by junior high school experience.

Engineering and Mechanical Pursuits Favored

The method used was the questionnaire returned from ninth-grade pupils in both systems. The items of information used were: (1) The sex of the pupil, (2) occupation of the father, (3) the vocational choice of the pupil, (4) the time of making the vocational choice, and (5) the reason for the vocational choice. The distribution of the vocational choices of the pupils is similar to many other such tabulations that have been made. These represent a wide range of vocational interest, teaching and stenography being the two occupations most frequently chosen. The vocational choices of boys tend to center around some type of professional engineering and mechanical pursuits. Large numbers of both sexes chose professional pursuits. The usual disparity appeared between the vocational choices of the boys and the occupations of their fathers. The time of entering high school or the ninth grade appeared to be a critical time for making vocational choices, although a large proportion of the choices were reported to have been made before that time.

Reasons for Vocational Choices

To obtain an expression of reason for the vocational choices 10 possible reasons were submitted in simple language and the pupils were asked to check the reasons that had influenced them most. These were:

1. My father or some relative is engaged in it.
2. I have worked at it after school or in vacations.
3. I learned about it in a shop or industrial course.
4. I learned about it through reading and study in school.
5. By working at it I can help other people.
6. I learned about it through reading and study outside of school.
7. I learned about it by talking to teachers.
8. I learned about it by talking to people outside of school.
9. The wages are high.
10. My parents want me to go into it.

It should be noted that three of these reasons are attributable to the school. These are the teachers, shop and industrial course, and reading and study in school. The other reasons are distinctly nonschool reasons. It is immediately interesting that these three school reasons were of the least importance in determining the vocational choices of pupils according to their answers while the

influence of friends and others outside of school and of parents were of first importance. The greatest consolation derived from the study is that the shop or industrial course, intended in Minneapolis to be exploratory, appeared to have influenced the junior high school boys more. In general school influences appeared to be of but little importance in either type of organization.

The last of the peculiar functions of which some evidence shall be cited is that of securing the conditions for better teaching. Some of the conditions claimed are: Better salaries for teachers, specialization of teachers through departmentalization of instruction, better vertical correlation of subject matter, and adequate provision through lengthened class periods for supervised study.

Salaries Lower than in Senior High Schools

It is well known that the salaries of junior high school teachers are intermediate between those of the elementary and the senior high school. They are sometimes equal but never greater than in the senior high school. The fact of departmentalization is apparent in varying degree in most junior high schools. The advantages accruing from it are not evident. Better vertical correlation of subject matter would be difficult though not impossible of measurement. The information which we shall cite has particularly to do with the provisions for supervised study.

Pertinent data has been recently reported by Mr. C. L. Cushman. The data were gathered by questionnaire from 63 junior high school systems in the cities of 75,000 or more in population. In summary his data show that the typical junior high school day is six class periods, or 300 minutes in length. The periods are of 50 minutes and the teachers teach five of the six periods. In 90 per cent of the systems the class period includes both recitation and supervised study and in 80 per cent of the systems the teachers have no definite time assigned for class preparation. Only 15 of the systems provide class periods of 60 minutes and one provides 70 minutes through double periods. Nineteen of the systems have 45-minute periods or less.

Class Periods Are Appreciably Longer

It appears at once that considerable progress or change has been made from the class period of 25 or 30 minutes typical of the older organization. These conditions for teaching, coupled with the obvious departmentalization and teacher specialization, are undoubtedly better for teachers than the traditional one-teacher-per-grade organization. We question, however, how much can be done in the way of systematic supervised study even with class periods and a school day of the

nature of those reported. Data collected in Minneapolis upon the disposition of the class time with 60-minute periods in a large number of recitation periods showed a wide variation in practice as regards supervised study by teachers who were instructed to use the period to the best advantage. The typical disposition of the class time was found to be 10 minutes of assignment, 30 minutes of recitation, and 20 minutes of supervised study in that order.

Time for Supervised Study Not Enough

This brief statement of the conditions with respect to supervised study raises several important considerations in regard to the scheduling of the junior high school day. Is 20 minutes of study sufficient for a 30-minute recitation based upon a 10-minute assignment, and if not where in a crowded junior high school day does the pupil compensate for his incompleting assignment? The problem of the junior high school pupil becomes more complex when we consider that he will have four or five of such incomplete preparations during the course of a day, which he will, in all probability, be compelled to carry home for study, or meet his teachers the following day unprepared.

If this is the situation with the 60-minute class period what can be done in the 75 per cent of the school systems that have less than 60 minutes time allotments? Thus the conditions for teaching as concerns scheduling the school day appear not to be ideal. The situation might be remedied by lengthening the class period to 70 minutes. This proposal would probably not be acceptable at once to all teachers and parents unless the number of class periods per day be reduced to five. As a matter of fact the number of class periods for the typical junior high school program of studies can be reduced to five and a period adequate in length for supervised study can be provided. It appears, however, that this is seldom or never done. It is equally apparent that if the superior advantages claimed for supervised study are to be realized some radical departures must be made from the current practice of junior high schools.

Much Remains to be Done

This limited survey of whether or not the junior high school is accomplishing certain of its peculiar functions seems to indicate a negative reply, and that the situation is not encouraging. Although such is far from our belief, we are convinced, nevertheless, that much remains to be done. If investigations were made of other of the peculiar functions, economy of time, recognition of individual differences, etc., perhaps more favorable results would be found. Fragmentary

studies of these functions, however, indicate the contrary.

Enough has been cited, we believe, to justify the major contention of this paper. It is that little may be expected in the realization of these purposes unless specific provision is made in the organization of the school for their accomplishment. Many schools have adopted the name of junior high school and some of its external features, such as centralization, departmentalization, promotion by subjects, and even new buildings and equipment, without changing materially the content of their courses and methods. The changes made may be worth while. If we desire better scholarship of pupils, however, it appears that the course of study and methods must be reorganized; if we desire better retention of pupils, provision must be made for guidance and adjustment to the needs of the pupil about to leave school, and before he has gone; if we desire to influence the educational and vocational choices of pupils, we must provide counselors with trained assistants and an organization which makes contact with the individual student; if we desire the conditions for better teaching we must break from the traditions of textbook recitation-study methods.

Instances are not few in which these and other provisions are made for the realization of purposes. In many schools certain school officials or committees are made responsible for the realization of specific functions. This is especially true of retention or attendance of pupils, guidance, vocational education, and the social program, but such provisions are by no means general even in high schools called junior. To the extent that such special provision is made and to that extent only may we expect to realize our purposes.

Hard to Change Written Language by Decree

Difficulty has been encountered in Turkey in carrying out the order of the Turkish Government for use of Latin letters instead of the Arabic as the medium for written and printed text. It is reported that drastic measures have been employed to enforce the order in Constantinople and the Turkish Black Sea littoral, and that the ministry of education has issued a circular warning all officials that they must without delay learn to read and write the new characters. It is stated that the reform is not proving as popular as was anticipated, that the press is having difficulty in setting up the new characters. Reopening schools was postponed on account of the lack of textbooks printed in the new type, and because of the lack of proficiency in the new alphabet on the part of teachers.

Vocational Guidance from Authoritative Sources

As part of a "Find-Yourself Campaign" in the Yakima (Wash.) High School an evening dinner was given in the school cafeteria, and conferences on the choice of a vocation were held between 45 professional and business men of the city and about 110 boys whom the business men had consented to counsel. Self-analysis questionnaires had previously been filled by the boys. These were classified according to vocational choices and, with pertinent information, were given in advance to the counselors.

Following the dinner short talks were made, and the company broke up into groups which met in different rooms for informal conference. No counselor advised any boy to enter a certain field, as it was thought best to allow the boys to make their own decisions. The boys welcomed the opportunity to get first-hand information concerning qualifications required and the general outlook in the vocations in which they were specially interested; and the men who gave their services heartily cooperated. The questionnaires and the results of the interviews were recorded and filed in the principal's office for future reference.

Ecuadorians Urged to Patronize Public Schools

Handbills setting forth the advantages of education and advising parents to send their children to public schools were distributed recently by school authorities in the Province of Pichincha and its principal city, Quito, Ecuador. Parents were reminded of the law requiring school attendance and of the provision by the Government of attractive school buildings, free books, and, in many places, free lunches. Additional advantages cited were the high type of education offered, free industrial and home-economics training, and careful attention to the health of children, including a weekly bath under school supervision.

A model school library has been installed in the new Alexander Hamilton Intermediate School, Seattle, Wash. Room, furniture, and general equipment were supplied by the school board. The public library board supplied 3,000 carefully selected books and provided the services of a trained and experienced children's librarian. It is hoped that operation of the model library for two years will demonstrate its usefulness, and lead to the installation of similar libraries in all school buildings of the city.

New Books in Education

BY MARTHA R. McCABE

Acting Librarian, Bureau of Education

ARNETT, TREVOR. Teachers' salaries in certain endowed and State-supported colleges and universities in the United States, with special reference to colleges of arts, literature and science, 1926-27. New York City, General education board, 1928. 83 p. tables, diags. 8°. (Publications of the General education board. Occasional papers, no. 8.)

This report brings to date a previous study made in 1921 by the same agency, and its conclusions are as follows: (1) The average salary of teachers in the 302 higher educational institutions considered increased 29.8 per cent from 1919-20 to 1926-27, meaning a real increase, as the teachers receive more money for their services, and the purchasing power of the dollar has increased as well; (2) a large number of teachers, 66.5 per cent, supplement their regular salaries by earnings from additional work; and (3) the increase in salaries has added to the financial burdens of the institutions considered, which they have met by raising tuition fees 70.5 per cent over 1919-20, and by an increase in endowment of 82.9 per cent.

COLE, ROBERT DANFORTH. Private secondary education for boys in the United States. Philadelphia, Westbrook publishing company, 1928. xiii, 353 p. tables, diags. 8°.

In this extensive report of the subject, the author offers his definition of private education to be that which involves a payment to the school, or the organization governing the school, for tuition, or tuition, room, and board. It also means that education which is not under the direct administrative control of the public-school authorities. A number of types of schools are described, namely: Boarding and day schools, country day schools, college preparatory schools, sectarian and nonsectarian, military schools, negro schools, etc. Three new private school foundations are described, and the place of private schools in American democracy is discussed, as well as the legal basis and legal restrictions of organization and administration. A classified list of the different types of private schools is given, and extensive bibliographies.

COUNTS, GEORGE S. School and society in Chicago. New York, Harcourt, Brace & Company [1928]. viii, 367 p. 8°.

This book is not only concerned with the experiences of public education in Chicago, culminating in the recent upheaval in the school system of that city, but also as a study and analysis of the forces which have a bearing on the administration of education in the industrial society of any large city. It presents a picture of the situation in a city where the annual expenditure is \$70,000,000 and the services of 15,000 men and women are required. The internal and external problems of management are difficult; within, being the perpetual struggle for power among the teachers, superintendents, boards of education, etc.; without, being the social groups and forces seeking to gain privileges, or to advance some special point of view. The writer presents many aspects of the relation of schools to society, and attempts to set forth the play of social forces on the school in such a way as to be enlightening to students of education and to various officials and social groups.

DORRIS, ANNA VERONA. Visual instruction in the public schools. Boston, New York [etc.], Ginn and company [1928]. x, 481 p. illus., front., tables, diags., maps. 12°.

The author, who is the head of the department of visual instruction in the State teachers college, San Francisco, and also an instructor in visual education in the University of California, extension division, presents her study in three parts. Part I gives the background to enable the teacher to use all sorts of visual materials as aids in teaching situations. Part II deals with modern methods of education, particularly the practical ways and means of using visual materials for enriching the curriculum. Part III discusses the training of teachers in the larger use of visual instruction. Two appendices contain information as to sources of material and apparatus for visual work, and sources of illustrative material for teaching the subjects of the curriculum. The author's statements are based on actual experience with children of all ages.

DRUM, WARREN NEVIN. A preview of teaching. Boston, New York [etc.], Ginn and company [1928]. vii, 338 p. tables, diags. 12°.

The book is intended to be, as the title suggests, introductory to teaching. It has a two-fold purpose: To give the teacher-to-be a real view of the modern theory and practice of teaching; and to find the field of teaching in which he is fitted to specialize. Chapters are devoted to educational psychology and human behavior, to curricula and courses of study (which the author defines), and to choosing a field for specialization; etc.

EDWARDS, R. H., ARTMAN, J. M., and FISHER, GALEN M. Undergraduates; a study of morale in 23 American colleges and universities. Garden City, N. Y., Doubleday, Doran and company, inc., 1928. x, 366 p. tables, chart. 8°.

The Association of American Colleges suggested the study here presented, which was undertaken by the Institute of Social and Religious Research. An advisory committee of a score or more of prominent officials connected with institutions of higher education engaged in the study, which was actively carried on by a small group of investigators. The analyzing of the assembled data was done by the authors of the volume, together with the laborious task of interpreting the findings and presenting the facts. The problems peculiar to college life are discussed, namely: Student grouping, fraternities and sororities, extra-curricular activities, athletics and physical education, relations of men and women, student government and honor systems, questions of moral and religious practices and beliefs, religious provisions and agencies, the faculty, etc. The study was made of 23 colleges and universities in the Middle West and East.

ELLIS, ROBERT SIDNEY. The psychology of individual differences. New York, London, D. Appleton and company, 1928. xxiii, 533 p. tables, diags. 12°.

To the question why people behave as they do the author adds the question "why each one behaves like himself and no one else." As there is wide interest in the subject, an attempt has been made

to supply necessary foundation material before discussing the problems, the methods, the results, and the applications of the psychology of individual differences. The point of view has been threefold, biological, experimental, and statistical. Differences in acquired traits have been included, although differences in native traits is the field primarily considered.

HOLLINGWORTH, LETA S. The psychology of the adolescent. New York, D. Appleton and company [1928]. xiii, 259 p. tables, diags. 12°.

The book is intended primarily for the use of parents and teachers, but also for the adolescents themselves. In the author's long experience in this line of work, she considers that none have been more eager to pursue the study than students in the later years of adolescence. The volume is offered not as the final word upon the subjects treated, but rather as a statement of the problems that are universally common to adolescents, under conditions of to-day.

ORLEANS, JACOB S., and SEALY, GLENN A. Objective tests. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y., and Chicago, Ill., World book company [1928]. x, 373 p. tables, diags. 12°.

New terms and phrases are coming into use as we leave old customs behind. One of these is the term "objective tests" used when meaning a new form of examination in a school subject. The term "school examination" has gone out with the old practice, and the new-type tests are termed "objective tests." The book brings out the theory and principles of testing for the improvement of examinations, and to supplement measurement with standard tests. The authors describe each step in an objective-testing program, and give in detail the methods of treating and interpreting test scores. The book is intended for the use of teachers, and also as a basic text, or a reference text, for courses in standard testing, or in general teaching methods.

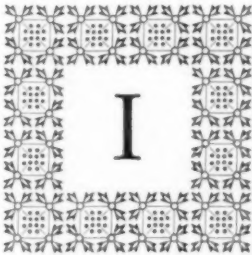
PHILLIPS, BARBARA E. The use of modern literature in high schools. Boston, The Gorham press [1928]. 113 p. 12°.

The writer, who is a high-school teacher of English, thinks that teachers should not shut their eyes to the beauties of modern literature, although studying and teaching the classics. The more vitally a person is interested in contemporary literature, the more vitally he becomes interested in standard literature, and through it, his tastes may be cultivated. A frank, open-minded consideration of the writings of our own times will accomplish much good. Suggestions are given for a number of projects and devices, with tests for the methods used.

REEVES, CHARLES EVERARD, and GANDERS, HARRY STANLEY. School building management; the operation and care of school plants. New York, Bureau of publications, Teachers college, Columbia university, 1928. xiii, 395 p. illus., tables, diags. 8°. (School administration series, edited by George D. Strayer and N. L. Engelhardt.)

This study was undertaken because of the thousands of large and costly school buildings provided by the public, and the need of adequate operation and care by responsible and trained school janitors and janitor-engineers. The purpose was to aid both school administrators, who have charge of public-school buildings, and the janitor-engineers, who are responsible for their management. Many problems are discussed, including the training for such service and the salaries paid.

CULTIVATION OF VIRTUE THE
TRUE AIM OF EDUCATION ~ ~

T IS VIRTUE, direct virtue, which is the hard and valuable part to be aimed at in education. All other considerations and accomplishments should give way, and be postponed, to this. This is the solid and substantial good, which tutors should not only read lectures, and talk of; but the labor and art of education should furnish the mind with, and fasten there, and never cease till the young man had a true relish of it, and placed his strength, his glory, and his pleasure in it. ¶ As the strength of the body lies chiefly in being able to endure hardships, so also does that of the mind. And the great principle and foundation of all virtue and worth lies in this, that a man is able to deny himself his own desires, cross his own inclinations, and purely follow what reason directs as best, though the appetite lean the other way.

—JOHN LOCKE

RELIGION IS THE FOUNDATION
OF ENLIGHTENED CIVILIZATION

OUR DOCTRINE of equality and liberty, of humanity and charity, comes from our belief in the brotherhood of man through the fatherhood of God. The whole foundation of enlightened civilization, in government, in society, and in business, rests on religion. Unless our people are thoroughly instructed in its great truths they are not fitted either to understand our institutions or to provide them with adequate support. For our independent colleges and secondary schools to be neglectful of their responsibilities in this direction is to turn their graduates loose with simply an increased capacity to prey upon each other. Such a dereliction of duty would put in jeopardy the whole fabric of society. For our chartered institutions of learning to turn back to the material and neglect the spiritual would be treason, not only to the cause for which they were founded but to man and to God.

—CALVIN COOLIDGE